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# NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

Monterey, California



## THESIS

THE QUEST FOR POWER IN EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

by

Baek, Kyu Tae

December 1984

Thesis Advisor:

Esther Hamilton

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their tasks, and power is the fuel that generates their results. 2. Effective commanders are very sensitive to developing all their sources of power. 3. They use their power for the good of the whole organization rather than for personal aggrandizement.

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The Quest for Power  
in  
Effective Leadership

by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MANAGEMENT

from the

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December 1984

ABSTRACT

This research paper reviews our knowledge of power to date and places it into several conceptual categories by providing tentative answers to the following three questions:

1. Why are the dynamics of power necessarily an important part of managerial processes?
2. How do effective commanders acquire power?
3. How and for what purposes do effective commanders use power?

The following are the key conclusions drawn from this literature review:

1. Commanders are dependent on subordinates and others to accomplish their tasks, and power is the fuel that generates their results.
2. Effective commanders are very sensitive to developing all their sources of power.
3. They use their power for the good of the whole organization rather than for personal aggrandizement.



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## I. INTRODUCTION

### A. PURPOSE

The problem of leadership today is the mediocrity or irresponsibility of many of the persons in power. The fundamental problem underlying mediocrity is the fact that many people are not aware of the fact that humans form pecking orders just as naturally as chickens, or any other species of hierarchically arranged social animals. Somehow our culture has developed blind spots about social hierarchies and the accompanying fact of politics and power in organizations.

The purpose of this research is to advance understanding of the important issues regarding power and leadership in a military organization. An analysis of the dynamics of power is important when considering organizational interactions no matter what type of organization is considered, whether it is an industrial organization, a social organization, a military organization, etc.

Speculation on the nature of power abounds in the writings of sociologists, political scientists, and historians. Considering the vast number of writings on the subject it is somewhat disappointing that power as a topic for rational study and dialogue has not received much attention at command and staff colleges, and war colleges in the military [Ref. 1].

The lack of attention to the subject of power merely adds to the already enormous confusion and misunderstanding surrounding the topic of power and leadership in the



military. That misunderstanding has become increasingly troublesome because in today's large and complex organization structure, the effective performance of most command positions requires one to be skilled in the use of power. It is likely that a large number of commanders perform significantly below their potential because they do not understand the dynamics of power and because they have not nurtured and developed instincts for acquiring and using power effectively.

Following are the three specific power related issues addressed by this research.

1. Why do the dynamics of power tend to emerge systematically in managerial processes?
2. How do effective commanders acquire power?
3. How and for what purposes do effective commanders use power?

This thesis is organized in five chapters. Chapter one, before setting forth the framework of power, shall review the standard power definitions and two basic power elements (influence and authority), in addition to surveying the literature related to the development of its concepts. Chapter two presents the relationship between power and leadership in order to identify the power potential in managerial processes. Chapter three presents the theoretical methods for acquiring and maintaining power. Chapter four examines the use of power to influence and its potential negative impact on other individuals. Finally, chapter five discusses the theoretical and practical implication of this work.

## B. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1. Power

The study of power can be approached from many different theoretical orientations. One of the most influential definitions of power was the one offered by Weber (1946):

Power is the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests. [Ref. 2: p. 152]

Weber was careful to distinguish power from other forms of social control in which cooperation is crucial. Hence, from Weber's view, inherent in the concept of power is some degree of resistance and conflict, with an emphasis on one person or group overpowering another.

In contrast, Dahl (1957) offers a definition of power that is restricted to interpersonal causation: "A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do" [Ref. 3: pp. 202-203]. Dahl's definition requires that A makes some power attempt and that as a result of this attempt A alters B's behavior.

Emerson (1962) notes that a minimal condition of power is dependence. Power resides implicitly in the other's dependence. In turn, B's dependence on A is directly proportional to B's motivational investment in goals mediated by A, and inversely proportional to the availability of these goals to B outside the A-B relationship. [Ref. 4: p. 32]

Dornbush and Scott (1975) define power "as the ability and willingness of one person to sanction another by manipulating rewards and punishments which are important to the other." [Ref. 5: pp. 32-33] It is not clear what they

gain by the inclusion of successful manipulation, but their consideration of willingness to utilize abilities and resources is an important one.

An important factor to consider in defining power is the final result of a power play. All of these definitions of power are concerned with A's ability to succeed, to win, to overcome i.e., to control B's behavior. For Weber, power exists only if there is resistance. If there is no resistance, there is no power, specifying that power relations become relevant in a social group when two or more individuals have conflicting preference and a decision must be made as to whose preferences will prevail.

It would appear then the basic feature of power is: A relationship between people where B depends upon A, and A is willing to utilize this advantage, in an attempt to manipulate B successfully in spite of B's resistance, thereby resulting in B acting as A wills.

With these basic features in mind, it can be said that power is a general construct most effectively defined as the ability to achieve control of another. The successful exercise of authority and influence will result in the objective of power: control. However, authority and influence represent vastly different concepts. Obviously, they do have interrelated aspects but their sources differ as do their modes of exercise. Understanding those differences should clarify many of the apparent contradictions and paradoxes evidenced in the power literature.

## 2. Authority

Dornbush and Scott (1975) in their consideration of the evaluation and exercise of authority, determine two criteria "which must be present before we can speak of

authority or legitimate power: there must be a set of persons or positions limited by power relations, and a set of norms or rules governing the exercise of power and the response to it" [Ref. 5: p. 38]. They also note:

The critical difference between power and authority, in our view, is that authority, but not power, is subject to normative constraints: the behavior of the parties involved, both power-wielder and recipient, is to some degree constrained and supported. In short, authority is a form of legitimate power, and legitimate power is normatively regulated power. [Ref. 5: p. 57]

Though Dornbush and Scott claim that authority is a "form of legitimate power", they do not mention any other forms. Given their two previously mentioned criteria for "authority or legitimate power," it becomes impossible to think of a form of legitimate power that would not be authority.

Therefore, authority is that part of power which represents its legitimate exercise under normative regulations. It is the right to directly cause another to behave in such a way that one gains control.

The confusion related to this definition of authority in the power literature results from the distinction made between formal and informal authority.

Dornbush and Scott (1975) suggest the following distinction between formal and informal authority:

Formal authority is viewed as authority attached to a position in an organization--that authority which exists regardless of the characteristics of individual position occupants. Informal authority, then, is that authority which is based on the personal characteristics or resources of an individual. [Ref. 5: p. 43]

These suggestions of the existence of both a formal and an informal dimension of authority disregards the essential element of the definition of authority: it is

legitimate power. According to Starr (1979) legitimacy can only exist within the framework of a formalized system of rules, norms, codes or standards [Ref. 6]. This formalized system reflects either a carefully written code of behavior or an implicitly verbalized code, established by a social collective. Authority is the formal expression of power. It exists in role-to-role relationships. It has definite parameters of legitimate expression.

It is essential to consider another dimension of authority frequently included in its analysis, that of validity vs. propriety. Dornbush and Scott (1975) summarize, "It is important to distinguish between the following two questions which might be asked of a subordinate: Does A have the right to exercise power over you? and Should A have the right to exercise power over you?" [Ref. 5: p. 40]

They suggest that the question of "does he have the right" relates to validity and is "authorized power", while "should he have the right" relates to propriety and is reflective of "endorsed power." i.e.:

We will say that A's power over B is authorized to the extent that beliefs held by groups superior to A legitimate A's power over B; and we will say that A's power over B is endorsed to the extent that beliefs held by B's colleagues who are also subject to A's power legitimate A's control over B. These two dimensions are conceptually independent in that authorized power may or may not be endorsed, and endorsed power may or may not be authorized. [Ref. 5: p. 41]

These considerations cloud the basic issue: the response of the subordinate to authority. When an order is given, does submission to the order depend upon validity or propriety, upon authorization or endorsement?

In a study, Evan and Zelditch (1961) found that variations in the perceived competence of the supervisor did not affect significantly the subordinates' felt obligation to obey. They questioned his ability to supervise, did not



endorse his right to supervise, but recognized his legitimacy in issuing orders. [Ref. 7]

This study supports the contention that authority (that which is valid and authorized) will effect submission or control even if propriety and endorsement are lacking.

It could be said that authority is the legitimate right to directly cause another to behave in such a way that one gains control.

### 3. Influence

March (1955) explained influence as a deviation or change from predicted behavior, and concluded:

It is in harmony with the more frequent uses of the term "influence" and with the present sense of that term to say that if the individual deviates from the predicted path of behavior, influence has occurred, and specifically that it is influence that has induced the change. [Ref. 13: pp. 434-435]

King (1975) modifies this definition by adding the criterion of deviation due to the intervention of other people's behavior, thus defining influence as "the process by which the behavior of an individual or collection of individuals change in the state of another individual or collection of individuals." King (1975) then proceeds to distinguish power and social influence by stating, "Power is the potential for influence and influence is the result of actualized power; a sergeant has power over a private, but he may or may not use it. When he does, he influences the private; he does not 'power' him." [Ref. 8: pp. 6-7]

Researchers and theorists in the area of social influence neglect the necessary condition of intent in the power process. Also, it should be noted that all decision-making processes are not necessarily power processes.

Much of the social influence literature includes the phenomena of social facilitation, mob action, and normative social influence within its parameters. King (1975) observes that "when one individual accepts another's behavior as a valid source of information about reality, social influence has occurred " [Ref. 8: p. 21]. Thus, by this definition the unprepared student who observes the prepared student mark of a certain test item in a certain way and proceeds to copy that answer has been influenced, even though there was certainly no intent to do so on the part of the prepared student. Deutsch and Gerard (1975) identified the two types of social influence: informational social influence and normative social influence. They proposed that "An informational social influence may be defined as an influence to accept information obtained from another as evidence about reality, while normative social influence is an influence to conform with the positive expectations of another" [Ref. 9]. King (1975) concludes that "generally informational social influence is unintended by the source . . . and normative social influence is intended by the source." [Ref. 8: p. 22]

Since informational social influence relates primarily to B using A's behavior as a source of information in a decision-making process (in much the same way that a book or message might be used), it is unrelated to the power relationship. There is no intent and therefore no willingness of A to manipulate the dependency of B and certainly no resistance on the part of B in the social exchange. It could be said that influence is the ability (potential or exercised) to cause another to behave in such a way that one gains control.

## II. POWER AND EFFECTIVENESS

"Power" is a word which arouses strong emotions and vivid fantasies. It may trigger fear or trust, submission or freedom, weakness or strength. Whatever it arouses, power is not a neutral word.

The negative aspects of power have often blinded people to its positive points, to its uses, and to the fact that without it, people cannot accomplish very much anywhere. We are now a society openly concerned with the art of getting others to do what we want and need. Yet our ambivalent feelings about power still persist. It continues to arouse confusing sentiments and conflicting beliefs.

### A. POWER EMERGENCY IN LEADERSHIP

As organizations have grown more complex, many commanders now recognize that the authority of an office is not sufficient for getting things done. They increasingly need other sources of power to influence other people on whom they are dependent. One of the distinguishing characteristics of a commander is his dependence on the activities of a variety of other people to perform his job effectively. A commander can be dependent in varying degrees on superiors, subordinates, peers in other parts of the organization, the subordinates of peers, regulating agencies, and many others.

Although commanders recognize that they get things done through others, few really appreciate just how much dependence is inherent in their jobs. Some of these crucial people who can affect their performance are relatively

obvious, but many of them are not. Of course, it is possible for a lot of needless dependence to be created by a poor organization structure or poor management practices. [Ref. 10: pp. 10-12]

Dealing with these dependencies and the commander's subsequent vulnerability is an important and difficult part of a commander's job because, while it is theoretically possible that all of the people in the organization would automatically act in just the manner that a commander wants and needs, such is almost never the case in reality. All the people on whom a commander is dependent have limited time, energy, and talent for which there are competing demands. Under these circumstances, power dynamics are inevitable and are needed to make organizations function well.

Some people may be uncooperative because they are too busy elsewhere, and some because they are not really capable of helping. Others may well have goals, values and beliefs that are quite different and in conflict with the commander's, and may therefore have no desire whatsoever to help or cooperate. This is obviously true of a competing organization.

A great paradox of command is that "as a person gains more formal authority in an organization, the areas in which he is vulnerable increase and become more complex rather than the reverse" [Ref. 11: p. 309]. It is not at all unusual for the commander of a unit to be in a highly dependent position. And that dependence can and does occasionally lead to firings, and other unpleasant situations. To be able to plan, organize, budget, staff, control, and evaluate, commanders need some control over the many people on whom they are dependent. Yet their jobs do not automatically provide commanders with that control.

Trying to control others solely by directing them and on the basis of the power associated with one's position frequently will not work--first, because commanders are always dependent on some people over whom they have little if any formal authority and, second, because virtually few people in any of today's modern organizations will passively accept and completely obey a stream of orders from someone just because he is the "boss."<sup>1</sup>

Trying to influence others by means of persuasion alone will not always work either. Although it is very powerful and possibly the single most important method of influence, persuasion has some serious drawbacks. To make it work often requires much time, skill, and information on the part of the persuader. Persuasion can also fail simply because the other person chooses not to listen or does not listen carefully.

This is not to say that directing people on the basis of the formal power of one's position and persuasion are not important means by which successful commanders cope. They obviously are, but even taken together, they are usually not enough.

According to one empirical study [Ref. 10: pp. 21-23], the manager who is more dependent on others needs much more power-oriented behavior to manage that dependence. Technological advances and the growth of organizations all tend to increase the dependence inherent in managerial jobs. At the same time, the increasingly negative attitude toward authority figures on the part of subordinates is reducing the power that automatically goes with a managerial job.

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<sup>1</sup>One high-level financial executive made the point this way: "Employee willingness to defer to you just because you are the boss, has gone down steadily in the past two decades. This is especially true of young people, who do not automatically respect authority the way their parents did [Ref. 10: p. 15]."



Under these conditions, power dynamics will necessarily be even more important in complex organizations. And the effective acquisition and use of power by commanders will become even more essential.

## B. POWER MOTIVATION

Effective commanders cope with their dependence on others by being sensitive to it, by eliminating or avoiding unnecessary dependence, and by establishing power over others. They then use that power to help them plan, organize, staff, budget, evaluate, etc. In other words, it is primarily because of the dependence inherent in command positions that the dynamics of power necessarily form an important part of a commander's process. To help cope with the dependency relationships inherent in their jobs, effective commanders create, increase, or maintain different types of power over others.

Commanders who have little skill at or inclination toward power oriented behavior sometimes remain in low-level managerial jobs throughout their careers, with few subordinates and few coordination responsibilities. But commanders who have the skill and inclination for power-oriented behavior often rise rapidly in organizations. The capacity for engaging effectively in power-oriented behavior, along with other skills, allows people to manage their dependence and to accomplish their objectives successfully.

Effective commanders, those who get the best out of their subordinates and thereby produce positive results for their units, are the key to organizational success. Therefore, it is not surprising that much research has gone into trying to define just what motivates effective commanders and how to describe them so that their

characteristics can be objectively measured and identified. One study indicates that successful commanders possess a high need for power, that is a concern for influencing people. However, they are not motivated by a need for personal aggrandizement, or by a need to get along with subordinates, but rather by a need to influence others' behavior for the good of the whole organization. In other words, good commanders want power. They also know that power must be tempered by maturity and controlled so that it is directed toward the benefit of the organization as a whole. [Ref. 12: p. 100]

According to McClelland's findings [Ref. 12], the successful managers are high in power motivation, low in affiliation motivation, and high in inhibition. They care about institutional power and use it to stimulate their employees to be more productive. He compares them with affiliative managers--those in whom the need for affiliation is higher than the need for power--and with the personal power managers--those in whom the need for power is higher than for affiliation but whose inhibition score is low.

He studied the managers' motivation pattern by empirical research. Figure 2.1 shows how their subordinates rated the offices they worked in on responsibility, organizational clarity, and team spirit. There are scores<sup>2</sup> from at least three subordinates for each manager, and several managers are represented for each type, so that the averages shown in the Figure 2.1 are quite stable. The manager who is concerned about being liked by people tends to have subordinates who feel that they have very little personal responsibility, that organizational procedures are not clear, and that they have little pride in their work group.

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<sup>2</sup>Scores are averages on selected climate dimensions by subordinates of managers with different motive profiles.

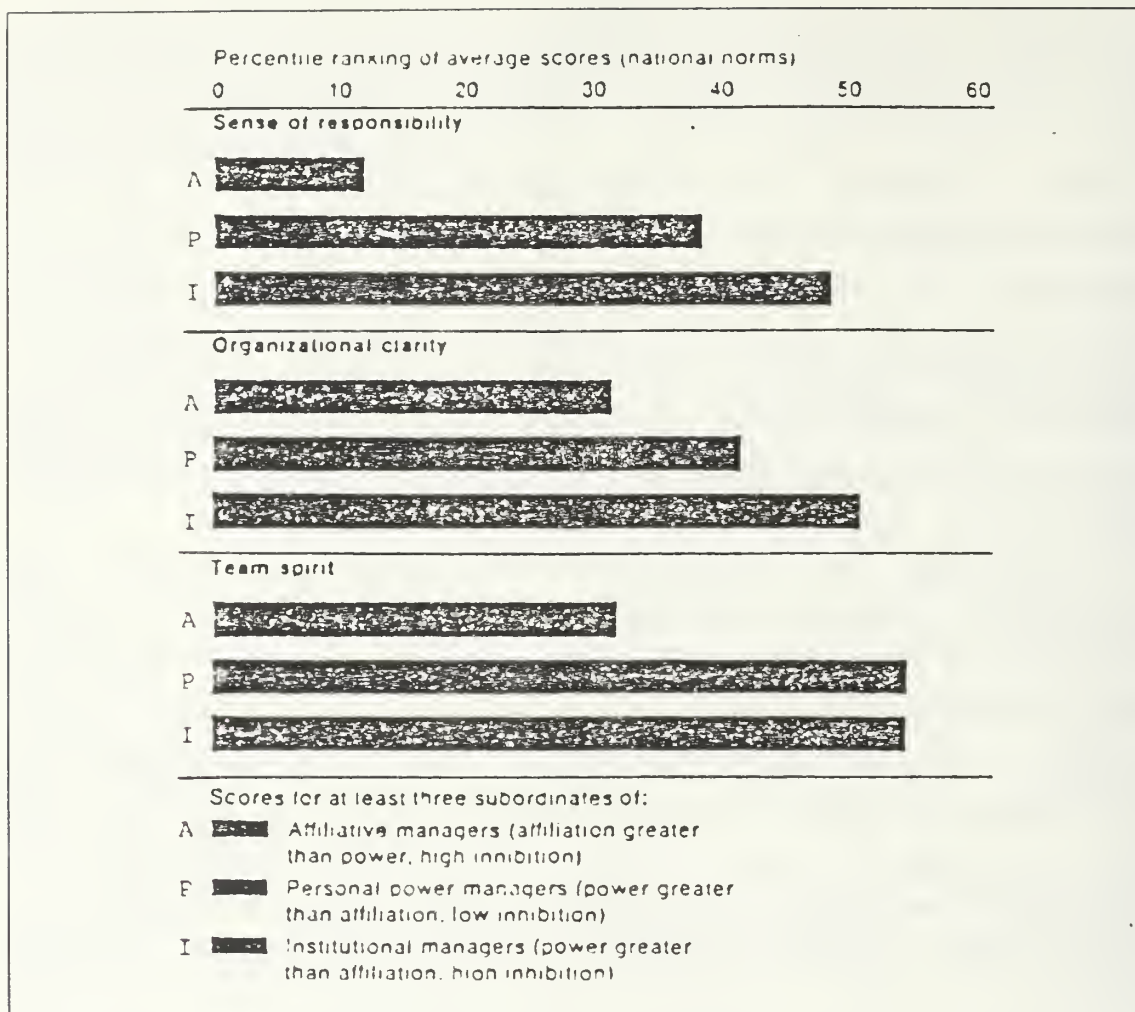


Figure 2.1 Average Scores.

Affiliative commanders make so many ad hominem and ad hoc decisions that they almost totally abandon orderly procedures. Their disregard for procedure often leaves their subordinates feeling weak, irresponsible, and without a sense of what might happen next, of where they stand in relation to their manager, or even of what they ought to be doing.

Commanders who are motivated by a need for personal power are somewhat more effective than affiliative

commanders. They are able to create a greater sense of responsibility in their units and, above all, a greater team spirit. They can be thought of as managerial equivalents of successful tank commanders such as General George Patton, whose own daring inspired admiration in his troops. But Figure 2.1 shows that these men are still only in the 40th percentile in the amount of organizational clarity they create, as compared to the high power, low affiliation, high inhibition commanders, whom he terms "institutional."

Commanders motivated by personal power are not disciplined enough to be good institution builders, and often their subordinates are loyal to them as individuals rather than to the institution they both serve. When a personal power commander leaves, disorganization often follows. His subordinates' strong group spirit, which the commander has personally inspired, deflates. The subordinates do not know what to do for themselves.

Of the managerial types, the "institutional" commander is the most successful in creating an effective work climate. Figure 2.1 shows that his subordinates feel that they have more responsibility. Also, this kind of commander creates high morale because he produces the greatest sense of organizational clarity and team spirit. If such a commander leaves, he can be more readily replaced by another commander because subordinates have been encouraged to be loyal to the institution rather than to a particular person.

Effective commanders--those who rate extremely high in total effectiveness--care about institutional power and its use to stimulate production. They have two characteristics that are part of the profile of the very best commanders: a great emotional maturity where there is little egotism, and a democratic coaching managerial style. It means they can control their subordinates and influence others around them



without resorting to coercion or to an authoritarian management style. Effective commanders also know that individual growth through job enrichment is the key to organizational health and productivity.

### C. THE POTENTIAL DANGER OF POWER DIFFERENCES

Before delving into the bases of power it is first necessary to understand what impact power has on interpersonal relationships. Different bases of power and their different effects will be discussed in the next chapter. In this section, however, research findings involving the general dangers of major power imbalances will be discussed, because it is obviously important for leadership in a formal organization.

According to a training exercise that simulates the power dichotomy, those assigned (on a random basis) to the low-power group are at first as optimistic, assertive, and competitive as the others. But soon, as they see themselves gaining little from their efforts, they become defensive and tense. They engross themselves in detail and fail to see the "big picture." They argue and compete among themselves on trivial matters. They become less attentive to their work and its quality declines or at least does not improve. Some lose confidence and become passive and resigned, while others become hostile and belligerent toward the high-power group. [Ref. 13]

Because of the esteem costs associated with the use of power, it appears that an inevitable response will be resistance and resentment, together with attempts by the target of the influence attempt to seek to improve his lot in one or more of the following ways:<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>A Similar discussion can be found in Cartwright.

1. To reduce the power differential by means of certain balancing actions, such as reducing dependency.
2. To seek approval from the more powerful figure on some basis other than one on which the power differential is based such as the formation of a coalition.
3. To increase the distance between himself and the more powerful other, through reduced interaction, withdrawal from the relationship, or both.

The most significant effects of power differentials may result from the third consequence listed above--the tendency of less powerful members to increase the distance between themselves and the more powerful. This tendency is reflected particularly through reduced interaction. This theoretically occurs for two reasons: One is that interaction between two persons of substantially different status or power often leads the person of lower status to be unfavorably compared with the other. It inhibits interaction attempts by the less powerful individuals. The second is the cost of interaction with an individual of lower power (status), in comparison with the potential gain, which tends to inhibit the initiation of communication downward by the more powerful member. The combination of these two forces produces a strong tendency for individuals to interact more with equals than with persons at other status levels. [Ref. 15]

This conclusion must be tempered by the question of how the more powerful individual (commander) reacts to an interaction initiation by a less powerful person. If he consistently reacts in an accepting and rewarding manner, the attempts at interaction should increase. However, theoretically there should be sufficient motivation toward limitation of interaction with individuals of lower power that

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[Ref. 14: pp. 35-38]



this conclusion should still hold as a general tendency.

One study<sup>4</sup> indicates that communication is significantly less accurate when members with high actual power communicated with pledges with low actual power than when communication was in the reverse direction. This is , apparently, because the member felt free to interrupt the pledge to question or to structure the information being given. In contrast, the pledge apparently felt less free to interrupt the member or to provide feedback on the adequacy of the information being provided, and therefore was less effective in solving the problem.

According to Tannenbaum (1968) who studied middle and lower level managers, higher level managers felt more positive about interactions they initiated themselves; the most negative feelings expressed were those toward contacts initiated by their subordinates [Ref. 17]. It seems unlikely that they could avoid communicating their feelings about subordinates to reduce the frequency with which they initiate them.

Power as an aspect of a relationship between people, appears to serve as a double-edged sword in interpersonal relationships in organizations, as well as in small groups. The existence of power differentials, especially large differentials, produces a variety of counter-productive behaviors among the less powerful. One of the most damaging to organizational effectiveness is reduction of communication initiations by the less powerful with their commanders, and probable distortion of the content of the communication initiations that do occur. The end result is that facts that may be quite relevant to solving organizational problems may fail to reach decision makers. This is especially

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<sup>4</sup>Alkire, et al. (1968) studied the accuracy of information exchange under conditions of differential social power, using sorority members and pledges.

likely to happen when there is some indication that the facts may not agree with predispositions existing at the decision level. Information about problems or other unpleasant matters may also be directed upward by subordinates reluctantly, if at all, or perhaps only after counter-productive delays, under circumstances when such initiation actions may lead to unpleasant consequences--as they often may when commanders (superordinates) have substantially more power than their subordinates, and make use of this power within the organizational setting.

### III. ACQUIRING AND MAINTAINING POWER

According to McMurry (1973), unfortunately, many employees resent discipline; to these employees, work is something to be avoided. In their value system "happiness" is the ultimate goal. For the organization to be made productive, such persons must be subjected to discipline. He notes that an executive without power is often a figurehead--or worse, headless, because without power, there can be no authority; without authority, there can be no discipline; without discipline, there can be difficulty in maintaining order, and productivity. Thus an effective manager must have power to influence others' behavior for the whole organization. [Ref. 16: p. 140]

#### A. THE BASES OF POWER

Acquiring power means acquiring potential influence--that is, the potential for getting others to do what you want or for preventing them from forcing you to do something. It is likely that the acquisition and maintenance of power is one of the most socially motivating processes that occurs in organizations. This implies that organization members pay attention to the cues and symbols that convey "power messages." It behooves one to know where the power resides in any organization or subunit: thus, people become sensitive to information--laden cues that provide knowledge of the existence and usefulness of power.

Power is a wide-ranging concept with a broad spectrum of definitions. For the purposes of this paper, power will be viewed as the ability to get things done will be taken as a

cognitive inference on the part of an observer that such influence ability is possessed or exercised by another person.

In recognition of the multiple types of reactions ascribed to the use of power, French and Raven (1959) developed a now well-known taxonomy of power types, determined by the basis of power one person has over another. [Ref. 23]

### 1. Reward Power

This derives from the capacity of one person to provide desired outcomes to another in exchange for compliance. This power is based on the ability of the manager to control and administer rewards (such as money, praise, or promotions) to his subordinates. The strength of reward power is that the use of reward power tends to cause the rewarding person to be more attractive to the complying person.

### 2. Coercive Power

In contrast to reward power, this consists of the capacity to inflict negative outcomes on another person. Coercive power is based on the ability of the manager to control and administer punishment (such as pay cuts, verbal reprimands, or demotion) to his subordinates. Coercive power is effective when other power bases have failed and compliance is absolutely essential.

### 3. Legitimate Power

Legitimate power results when the less powerful person believes that he ought to comply. Bases of legitimate power include cultural values (e.g., age), acceptance of the

social structure(e.g., the hierarchy of authority in an organization), a legitimizing action (e.g., an election by the group of a group leader).

#### 4. Expert Power

This is a function of the less powerful person's judgement that the other person has knowledge or ability that exceeds his own in the area in question. This power is based upon the manager's knowledge, expertise, skills, or abilities concerning his job. Normally, expert power is limited to an area of demonstrated capability, though a common and perhaps fallacious assumption is that a person who is expert in one area is also expert in others.

#### 5. Referent Power

The basis for referent power is a sufficiently high attractiveness of the power figure so that the less powerful person identifies with him and wishes to please him by seeking to comply with his wishes. Referent power comes through psychological identification with the power holder, stemming from his personal characteristics. Acting in accordance with the wishes of an admired or liked person exemplifies referent power. Compliance with the wishes of a source of referent power does not require supervision; as French and Raven note, it is quite possible for the less powerful person to comply with a wish of the referent power figure while unaware of the legitimate power that person has over him. (This is the charismatic leader who inspires others to follow.)

Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer (1979) extended the French-and-Raven model with two additional bases of power: [Ref. 18]

## 6. Information Power

Information power stems from the possession of or access to information that is important or valuable to others. Other people's need to know or desire to be "in on things" permits the wielding of information power.<sup>5</sup>

## 7. Connection Power

Connection power comes through connections with important or influential people within or outside the organization. Compliance is obtained from those who attempt to gain favor or avoid disfavor of the important people.

French and Raven have been remarkably instructive in their identification of the primary sources of power, at least within the context of interpersonal relationships. However, the taxonomy initially conceptualized by them is not totally comprehensive.<sup>6</sup> Perhaps its greatest value is its capacity for suggesting how reliable the response of the less powerful person will be, and how dependent that response will be on the supervision of the influence agent, as a function of the basis of power being exercised.

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<sup>5</sup>The information power base was also added in subsequent papers by Raven, for example, "Social Influence and Power" in Current Studies in Social Psychology, edited by I. D. Steiner and M. Fishbein, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

<sup>6</sup>For example, control over scarce resources is a widely recognized basis of power that, in some cases goes, beyond what apparently was included under reward power. An example is information; its control confers power. Control of information as a resource is an important power base. People who control the flow of information from outside to the decision makers can exercise the control to suit their preferences.



## B. POSITIONAL AND PERSONAL POWER

An individual may have more than one power base and may exercise various power bases to different degrees in a single context. The power of organizational actors is fundamentally determined by two things, the importance of what they do in the organization and their skill in doing it [Ref. 19: p. 98]. According to Thomas (1984), in an organization managerial power comes from two major sources: (1) from qualities or knowledge possessed by the manager himself, "personal power" and (2) from the authority and resources attached to the manager's position, "position power." These two basic types of power can be broken down into six more specific sources or "bases" of power, as in the classification by French and Raven [Ref. 20].

Individuals have two power bases. First, a positional power base which is affected by the formal organization system. Second, a personal power base which is affected by the idiosyncrasies of each individual. Power does not necessarily come automatically with the designation of formal authority. People need to get power not only from the official structure but also from the more hidden personal processes. While there may appear to be many different approaches to the issue of power bases, the two primary ones--position and person--are exclusive in terms of the strategies manifested in their use.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>7</sup>The exact nature of these two forms of power varies from author to author. Thomas (1984), for example, maintains that position power includes the coercive and legitimate power of a position. However, here, the author will restrict the term "position power" to the narrower definition of the legitimate power or authority of one's formal position. The remaining power bases (including coercive and reward) will be treated as "personal" power bases which are not part of the position itself (as defined narrowly) and are more easily controlled or added to by person occupying that position.

Positional power derives from the rights and prerogatives that accrue to a slot on an organizational chart. Positional power is used when a decision is influenced by organizational authority, responsibility, duties, or functions that required the decision. This concept of position power is similar to Barnard's definition of it,<sup>8</sup> and French and Raven's definition of legitimate power. The occupant of the role inherits those powers. Parents - child, teacher - student, and coach - player are other examples of hierarchical role relationships in which one role has power over another role.

The authority of position is generally considered to be legitimate and the most common basis of power used to influence subordinates. There are, however, serious issues at stake in the exercise of authority. The small group and leadership literature has indicated that there are limits to the viability of position power in technically and organizationally complex issues [Ref. 22]. Many commanders recognize that authority of an office is not sufficient to get things done in organizations. We see people at all organizational levels having to use their skills of persuasion, negotiation, personal charisma and trust building in order to influence others.

The increasing use of personal rather than positional power, is rooted in several social trends; a shift in values of workers from the traditional work ethic toward a focus on the quality of life, higher education of workers, more technologically complex jobs, greater professionalization of workforce, and a growing distrust of institutions and their leaders. There is also an increasingly complex environment which influences organizations to create matrix designs and

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<sup>8</sup>Barnard, D. M. states "A person's position power, depends on that individual's holding a particular office or position in the organizational hierarchy." [Ref. 21]

other organizational forms which are not strictly hierarchical. This erosion of positional power is accelerated by the proliferation of interest groups which claim the right to participate in decision processes.

As positional power is diffused and eroded, personal power become more essential to get things done in organizations. Personal qualities and expertise in addition to position power promote effective leadership.

### C. OPERATIONAL SOURCES OF PERSONAL POWER

Personal power stems from such qualities as expertise, leadership abilities, and personal resources possessed by an individual. However, individuals may not exercise personal power. This may be because they do not know how to make use of the sources they possess. The following operational definitions of these three sources of personal power will be discussed.

#### 1. Expertise

A person is said to have used an expert power base if knowledge of the subject matter or special technical skills, information or reasoning influenced the decision outcome. [Ref. 23]

A leader high in expert power is seen as possessing the expertise to facilitate the work behavior of others. This leads to compliance with the leader's wishes. Experience, training, or displayed ability are some of the reasons for others' respect for a leader's expertise.

The informational power can be either a part of expert power, resource power, depending upon how it is used. The power of information can be included within expert power

when it is used to deal with the uncertainty faced in decision making. However, informational power is closely related to resource power when control of information is exercised.

Expert bases of power are subtle in their influence and tend to be effective when people with position power seek information from those having status and prestige [Ref. 24]. The degree of shared values and goal congruence may lie at the core of the dependency relationship between position power and expert power base. Expert bases of power are dependent upon people with position power bases allowing them participation in the decision-making process. People with position power, however, need the information that experts can produce through their analysis. The extent to which expert bases will influence decision outcomes will depend upon the value of the information in absorbing the uncertainty in the decision-making process.

Expert power is a function of the less powerful person's judgement that the other person has knowledge or ability that exceeds his own in the area in question. To the extent that the expertness is relevant to goals that the less powerful person seeks to attain, influence attempts by the more powerful person are likely to produce compliance without supervision, in direct proportion to the strength of the belief that he is in fact expert. Normally, expert power is limited to areas of demonstrated capability, though a common assumption is that a person who is expert in one area is also expert in others.

## 2. Personal Resources

Resource power is used when the outcomes are influenced by the control of resources necessary to implement a decision. In this context, reward and coercive power are derived from the control of resources. Resources may be

considered to have either a positive valence (reward) or a negative valence (coercive: such as the cut off of pay).

Information, money, and people are common and important resources for organizational purposes. People acquire power to the extent that they provide resources critical to the organization, and they will be perceived to have influence when they are able to control or provide scarce or critical resources. Even the lower-echelon organization members can exercise influence on upper levels of the hierarchy by controlling information, which is an important power resource.

The control of resources is considered to be an important power base because it is generally believed that authority to make a decision and the control of resources go hand in hand. The control of information, money, and people is usually distributed among individuals who have to depend upon each other to implement a decision. This interdependence may make it difficult for individuals to exercise control of resources which may, to some extent, explain the low influence of resource power.

### 3. Politics

According to Harvey and Mills (1974), behavior in nonroutine task situations (complex and uncertain situations) is less likely to be characterized by legitimate power than by political power and its attendant skills--persuasion, compromise, coalition formation, and so on [Ref. 25]. Political power refers to power from personal leadership and skills in persuasion, coalition formation and other political strategies, which are not always noble and high-minded. McMurtry (1974) notes a top executive must gain and retain power by tactics that are mostly political and means that are in large part Machiavellian [Ref. 16].



Skills are needed in manipulating the bases of power if one is actually giving to exercise power.

The above three bases of personal power are not totally independent. Hierarchical position may provide some control of resources and access to the implementation of political strategies. People in high hierarchical positions may be more influential because of their ability to mobilize other bases of power.

#### D. THE ROLE OF PERSONAL POWER

A major study by Kanter (1982), reported in the Harvard Business Review, found that managers who produce innovative achievements possess two special qualities: the ability to envision accomplishments beyond the scope of their job, and the behavioral skill and flexibility to garner the resources and support needed to make the project work. [Ref. 26: pp. 95-105]

Kanter comments: "Because of the extra resources they require, entrepreneurial managers need to go beyond the limits of their formal position. For this, they need personal power." They must, in other words, exercise personal power to mobilize resources and people to get things done. Kanter argues that "lack of personal power tends to create managers who are more concerned about guarding their territories than about collaborating with others to the benefit of the organization." [Ref. 26: p. 97]

Exceptional managers are not empowered simply by their positions. On their own, they seek and find the additional strength it takes to carry out new initiatives. For nonroutine accomplishments their power-related tools do not come through the vertical chain of command, but rather from



many different sources within themselves and the surrounding organizations.

Leaders who feel comfortable and secure in their understanding of the positive side of power and the need for personal power, will be those capable of creating organizational cultures that bond powerful people together in pursuit of an organizational goal, in the same way that a flock of wild geese are able to fly in perfect V-shaped formation.<sup>9</sup>

## E. STRATEGIES FOR GETTING POWER

Most people who have achieved some success in managerial jobs appear to use similar methods, in varying degrees, for acquiring power. This section will explore various tactics that effective managers use in their quest for power.

### 1. Gaining Control over Resources

The most obvious way in which managers develop the potential for getting others to do what they want or for preventing them from forcing them to do something, is by gaining direct control over tangible resources--such as budget, employees, and equipment. For example, war-time supply sergeants became more powerful than most colonels because they controlled large quantities of scarce goods [Ref. 10].

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<sup>9</sup>Rubin, I. M. & Berlew, D. E. say that leaders who restrict the instinct to manage more tightly during difficult times, who instead support the personal power and entrepreneurship of their middle managers, create an organizational culture that bonds powerful people together in pursuit of a common goal-like "flock of wild geese flying in perfect V-shaped formation." They also argue that it is hard to imagine how far a flock of wild geese would get if its leader was always nervously looking back over its shoulder. [Ref. 28]

To identify and acquire a managerial position which potentially controls many scarce organizational resources is another way to increase one's power, even though this position may not appear to be very powerful. In their career development, managers try both to move up the hierarchy and toward positions where they will control resources critical to the organization's operations. Such a position gives them a great deal of power.

Another significant source of potential power in an organization is the control of useful information. In a complex society or organization, control of information can be even more important than control of resources, because rational problem solving and influence by persuasion are essential in complex settings. Control of useful information can enhance one's problem-solving ability. Thus information can be power.

A manager primarily can gain information power in two ways: First, he develops a proper information control system which reports all relevant data to him. Second, he spends a considerable amount of his time getting acquainted with people in all parts of the organization. He needs to control the formal and informal information systems in order to get better information than anyone else on most major organizational activities. [Ref. 10]

## 2. Creating Perceived Dependence

Managers gain power in relationships by feeding others' beliefs that they are dependent on the managers for either help or security. The more dependent other people perceive themselves to be, the more they will be inclined to cooperate with such managers.

There are two useful methods which managers use to create perceived dependence. In the first, the manager

controls resources which others need but which they neither possess nor can readily acquire elsewhere. Then the manager makes sure they perceive that he can use such resources to help or hinder them. [Ref. 11]

Managers also gain this type of power by influencing other people's perceptions of a manager's resources. People will seldom possess hard facts regarding what relevant resources the manager might command in the future, or how prepared he is to use those resources to help or hinder them. They will be forced to make judgement calls. Managers, insofar as they can influence people's judgements, can generate much more power than one would generally ascribe to them on the basis of the reality of their resources.

### 3. Building a Good Professional Reputation

Performance in one's formal role is an important component of professional reputation, because the major consequence of assessed stature is that it affects a person's ability to negotiate and persuade successfully. Another way to gain power is by building a reputation as an expert in certain matters. People will often defer to the manager because they believe in the manager's expertise. [Ref. 10]

A basic tactic of this strategy is to find out what credentials or experiences prompt respect and then go about acquiring these credentials or experiences. This type of power is usually established through visible achievement so that people know what the manager has. The key to effective pursuit of visibility is: first, identifying a pressing organizational problem; second, finding a solution that will bring with it high visibility; third, implementing the solution in a competent manner.

This method is comfortable for people who have a willingness to take risks and a greater need for power than for affiliation. In the process of this tactic, people often find that they are perceived as being on a different level, and they must accept a certain distancing from people they formerly regarded as peers and friends.

The larger and more visible the achievement, the more power the individual tends to develop. Visibility is especially important in large settings where most people have only secondhand information about the professional competence of others. A number of tactics to develop highly visible achievements are: (1) Publishing scientific papers and managerial articles related to one's work. (2) Being selective in the assignments one will work on and choosing those that are visible and that require one's strong suits. (3) Giving speeches and presentations on projects that are one's own achievements. (4) In meetings, being forceful in areas where one has expertise and silent in those where one has not.

#### 4. Giving Help

The use of power frequently results in a win-lose outcome. Giving and receiving may have "zero sum" analogues to winning and losing. To the extent that one person wins or gives, the other must lose or receive.

McClelland (1975), on the power aspect of giving relationships, notes:

It is a type of helping behavior that appears to be the direct opposite of trying to outwit or defeat another. If you help someone, it looks as if you are to save him, not put him down, as you would be trying to do if you were competing with him. How can giving and competing be in any sense psychologically equivalent? One way of looking at giving is to perceive that for help to be given, help must be received. And in accepting a gift, or help the receiver can be perceived as acknowledging that he is weaker, at least in this respect, than the person who is giving him help. [Ref. 29: p. 18]

People recognize that the more help they accept, the more they are acknowledging their weakness or their inferior position. To give one's time, effort, attention, or support is to make others feel powerless. Giving intangible as well as tangible resources makes managers powerful in an organization.

## 5. Establishing Favorable Relationships

Another set of strategies which managers use to acquire power focuses on relationships. To use this approach, it is necessary to give people reasons to like you, trust you, or identify with you. Individuals attempting to use this tactic, try to get to know others socially. These people can subsequently make things happen through the friendship network that pervades the organization.

The real key to effective implementation of this method is trust. Trust is terribly difficult to build, and frighteningly easy to destroy. Trust can be established in a number of different ways, but it always involves another's willingness to defer to the person in friendship within certain bounds. People believe that friendship carries with it certain obligations and they make formal and informal deals in which they make concessions in exchange for certain future obligations. Good relationships help managers influence those they must depend upon. They also provide managers with indirect access to other people's tangible resources and information. [Ref. 30]

If trust does not appear in relationships, then it is better to convince the other person that they share an important goal. One's degree of power increases as the other person appreciates that, through joint effort, they can increase the likelihood that they will achieve their shared objectives.



In building favorable relationships, it is necessary to avoid winning at the other's expense, but to work to create win-win outcomes. Sometimes one may have to give the other person a reason to talk with him in the first place. Relying on formal power (authority) to initiate a dialogue is risky; it implies a win-lose relationship from the start. Relying on expert power is also problematic, as it can create a social distance ("I am the expert; you are not."). One needs to have the skills of using associative power in order to give the other person a reason to begin communicating with him.

#### 6. Building Associations with Powerful People

In organizations, status and symbols of status can play an important role. They are used both to hide behind and to maintain the aura of power and prestige. High-status persons exert greater pressure to conform than low-status persons. The association with people in high places certainly adds to status. Getting to know people who are known or supposed to be powerful becomes a power asset for a power figure. An old adage claims that "It is who you know that's important rather than what you know."

Managers who are particularly successful at acquiring and maintaining power do not necessarily use all the methods described above to the same degree or in the same way. Nevertheless, effective managers are very sensitive to where power exists in their organizations, recognize that all of their actions can affect their power, and avoid actions that will accidentally decrease their power.

According to Banfield (1975), successful politicians use power in a way that is similar to how successful entrepreneurs use capital. They take calculated risks in which



they invest some of their power in the hopes of gaining it back with interest [Ref. 31]. Politicians seek to maintain or increase their stock of power. They exercise power only when they think doing so will improve their net power position; when there are alternative investment possibilities, they always choose the one they think will be most profitable. In making their choice of investment, they take into account the uncertainty of return as well as its probable value. The politicians take risks, investing their power in decisions and actions in the hopes of getting even more in return. It is likely that the same is true for most effective managers.

#### F. TRAPPINGS OF POWER

In trying to influence people's judgement, effective managers pay considerable attention to the trappings of power. They sometimes carefully select, decorate, and arrange their offices, and use nonverbal language so as to convey their own power.

Molloy (1975) states, "People who look successful and well-educated receive preferential treatment in almost all of their social or business encounters. . . . The way we dress has remarkable impact on the people we meet professionally or socially and greatly affects how they treat us." [Ref. 32]

Much of the power in a formal organization comes from dress, office, regalia, degrees, medals, or other symbols of power and success. If they work to empower and the net result is more positive power or at least the potential for it, then it may well be a wise strategy to provide those trappings as well as obtaining the sources of power.

Effective managers know how to communicate position in nonverbal ways. Nonverbal behavior refers to all actions which are not written or spoken words. Nonverbal communication is continual and provides a great deal of information. Our nonverbal behavior also continually leaks signals about power. And the effective managers know the nonverbal ways to communicate position in the social pecking order.<sup>10</sup>

### 1. Physical Settings

In a contest for power, the physical setting one occupies provides a resource because of its symbolic effect on how others relate to the occupants of the space. This can be seen clearly in the competition for prominence among organizations. In San Francisco, the bank of America built not only one of the taller buildings in the city, but put it on a hill so that its highest advantage would be intensified. Thus, in a literal as well as a figurative sense, the Bank of America's world headquarters towers over the other banks in the financial district. The competition for power and status among organizations becomes represented in the construction of ever more grand and taller headquarters buildings. These buildings have effects on how those within and outside the organization perceive the firm. [Ref. 19: pp. 221-222]

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<sup>10</sup> Human nature was reflected in some scientific research done by the Danish zoologist Thorlief Schioldorup-Ebbe in 1913. He found that the lowly barnyard chicken has an organizational structure with one chicken at the top, which could peck any other chicken with impunity to express its dominance. The next layer of subordinate chickens could peck those chickens of lower rank but could not peck the boss chicken and so on down the hierarchy--each layer being allowed to peck lesser-ranking chickens, but not those of higher rank. He called the phenomenon the pecking order. In human terms, maintaining one's place in the pecking order is reflected in power politics or office politics.

When considering space and power, the basic rule is that the more powerful the person is, the larger the territory he can call his own. Of course, the more powerful people also have more desirable territories, as well as bigger territories. Sometimes desirability is based on a logical foundation; for instance, access to a computer terminal, quiet surroundings, etc. But many times the desirability of an office is determined by such frivolities as the color of the carpet, the number of windows, etc. Furniture also conveys messages about power. The rectangular conference table with the clear demarcation of a head-of-the-table position, provides a symbolic reminder as to who is in charge at the meeting.

## 2. Body Gesture and Posture

Generally, the more relaxed one's body posture, the more powerful one is. Think of an interview situation of seeking a job. The interviewer is relaxed and open in body stance. The less powerful interviewee is probably closed, straight, and sitting near the edge of the chair.

A more powerful person stares, the less powerful will lower his eyes and glance up furtively. Powerful people will sometimes make it impossible for subordinates to gaze into their eyes. Witness the motorcycle policeman who wears mirrored glasses. He can stare at the other but the other cannot really stare back. [Ref. 33]

Powerful managers tend to maintain a neutral facial expression, while less powerful ones have a more animated expression. At high level business meetings the ranking person present will rarely smile--even at welcome tidings.

### 3. Time and Interruptions

As with space, powerful people control the length of an interaction and its nature. The dean at a school, for instance, may give half hour appointments to students; the vice president may give fifteen minutes; and, the president of the school may only let a group of students catch his ear for a few moments.

The more powerful person may also violate the time of less powerful subordinates (subordinates are kept waiting by their boss), and powerful people annex the time of others. Powerless people have to give up time as the more powerful demand it. [Ref. 33]

It is as though the thoughts of the more powerful are more important and cannot wait. More powerful people will routinely interrupt a subordinate as they speak. How often we tell our children not to interrupt, but we often interrupt our children!

If people need to be powerful, or they wish to be equal with their colleagues when they communicate, they need to avoid powerless nonverbal signals such as restrained body posture.

All of these silent power cues give strong power messages. When managers are aware of and in control of these, silent signs of power can help them be powerful and deal more effectively with others around them.

#### IV. THE EFFECTIVE USE OF POWER

Effective managers use power to influence others directly, face to face, and in more indirect ways. In the previous chapter, a multitude of strategies and tactics in the pursuit of power was identified. This chapter will present a distillation of the concepts and strategies of using power. However, to understand how effective leaders use power, it is first necessary to consider the two faces of power and subordinate reaction to managerial power.

##### A. POSITIVE VS. NEGATIVE POWER

Most people are ambivalent about power. For most people, the word power elicits negative associations. Many of the experiences people have had with power have been negative. They were made to feel like a pawn in another person's game [Ref. 34]. Someone exercised power in a way that made them feel squelched, weakened, inadequate or manipulated. This can happen through direct contact, as between a teacher and a student or a leader and a subordinate. It can also happen to an entire work group or organization if the members feel over-controlled, under-used or exploited.

Power can be used in ways that are destructive to the human spirit. However, the positive use of power has enormous potential [Ref. 35].

The fact is, power is neutral--it is neither inherently good nor bad. It is the way power is used, and its consequences, that create the positive or negative bias. Let us consider an analogy.



Gasoline is a source of power or energy. It powers, among other things, automobiles. One person chooses to drive his automobile (i.e., use his power) to transport patients to the hospital. Another person chooses to drive his automobile as a getaway vehicle in a bank robbery. The power used is the same in both cases. It is how the two individuals choose to use their power that leads us to a positive or negative value judgement.

So, the reality of personal choice and personal responsibility is related to the concept of power. People can learn to exercise their power in ways that leave others stronger or weaker or less powerful. The ultimate decision of how to use one's power always lies with the individual.

#### B. THE USE OF POWER AND SUBORDINATE REACTION

A leader's use of power can affect subordinate motivation and effort. Yukl and Taber (1983) noted that the motivational outcome of an influence attempt by the leader can be classified according to whether it produces commitment, compliance, or resistance in the subordinate.

When subordinates are committed, they are enthusiastic about carrying out the leader's requests and make a maximum effort to do so. Committed employees accept the leader's goals and exert maximum effort to accomplish them. Simple compliance, on the other hand, is only a partially successful outcome of leader influence. Subordinates go along with the leader's requests without necessarily accepting the leader's goals. They are not enthusiastic and make only the minimally acceptable effort in carrying out such requests. Resistance, as most managers know, is a clearly unsuccessful outcome. Subordinates reject the leader's goals and may pretend to comply, but instead,

intentionally delay or sabotage the task. Unfortunately, only a few studies have considered subordinate motivation as an intervening variable. However, a picture of the likely causal relationships between leader power bases and subordinate motivation could be pieced together from the limited evidence available. [Ref. 36]

Power Source	Commitment	Compliance	Resistance
Authority	Possible	Likely	Possible
Reward Power	Possible	Likely	Possible
Coercive Power	Unlikely	Possible	Likely
Expert Power	Likely	Possible	Possible
Referent Power	Likely	Possible	Possible

Figure 4.1 Outcomes that Result  
from Different Types of Power.

As figure 4.1 illustrates, expert and referent power tend to result in commitment, authority and reward power tend to result in compliance, and coercion tends to result in resistance. result in subordinate commitment, and coercion tends to result in resistance. Because group performance is usually better when subordinates are highly motivated to do the task, the use of expert and referent power usually leads to a higher level of performance.

The conclusions of Yukl and Taber (1983), however, were based largely upon from non-military organizations. Some differences might be expected in various military settings. Specifically, in situations where subordinates have to work under conditions that are physically very demanding, rewards

(such as rest time) may be powerful motivators. Likewise, promotion among competitive officers (another form of reward) may be a powerful motivator.

However, the outcome of a particular attempt to influence subordinates will depend as much on the leader's skills as on the type of power used. It is quite possible that reward power could result merely in compliance or even in resistance when a subordinate views rewards as tainted or as bribes for doing what the leader wants. Referent power can also lose its potency when a subordinate ceases to identify with the leader. Coercion does not necessarily have to result in resistance; it may result in subordinate compliance if used skillfully. Punishment is sometimes effective in getting subordinates to comply with rules and regulations.

It is likely that effective leaders use various types of power at one time or another. Managerial effectiveness stems from knowing the appropriate type of power to use in each situation and how to exercise this power skillfully to maximize subordinate commitment.

### C. A MODEL OF PERSONAL POWER AND INFLUENCE

When a person tries to affect another, something analogous to physical energy or force is involved. It takes energy to overcome the inertia of the other person and to produce movement. Roger Harrison and Jim Kouzes (1980) identified four "energy modes" in interpersonal relationships on which to base a model of influencing behaviors [Ref. 37].

1. Pushing: When a person pushes, he directs his energy toward others in order to get them to change in some way: to start or stop doing something; to believe or think in some new way; to perform according to

certain standards, and so on. When one is pushing, one is attempting to move, induce, or control others through arguments, criticism, and threats. In this energy mode, the leader directs the subordinates in an authoritative manner.

2. Attracting: When a person attracts, he behaves so that others are drawn to join or follow him. Others are moved to join forces with one in one's projects and share one's visions and ideals. One attracts by showing enthusiasm, by sharing dreams and ideals, by using colorful language to evoke exciting possibilities. In this energy mode, the leader inspires and energizes the subordinates with hopes of a better world, and creates a sense of common purpose by appealing to deeply held values and ideals.
3. Joining: When a person joins, he adds his energy to that of others so as to increase or augment it. One joins with others by encouraging, by expressing empathy and understanding, by summarizing and reflecting others' ideas and feelings, and by expressing one's willingness to cooperate and reach agreement. When criticized or attacked, a joining response is to accept criticism and to admit one's deficiencies and mistakes. When used actively, joining influences the others by selectively augmenting tendencies and directions, thus shaping behavior without pushing. In this energy mode, the leader builds an atmosphere of trust, support and personal acceptance in which others feel free to be themselves and to take personal risks with their ideas and feelings.
4. Disengaging: When a person disengages, he avoids, absorbs, or deflects others' energy, and thus diminishes its impact. One disengages by withdrawing or

failing to respond, by changing the subject, and by using humor to lighten the atmosphere. One postpones or refers matters rather than dealing with them, and one depersonalizes conflicts by reference to rules and regulations. In this way one avoids negative involvements and conserves energy. In this energy mode, the leader avoids confrontation and controversy by changes of direction and adroit timing, and strives to maintain an image of legitimacy for one's activities.

People feel positive about one who is able to articulate clear, concise proposals that are supported by well organized facts and logic. The ability to be clear and direct, but not aggressive, in communicating one's needs and in structuring fair and equitable exchanges is a fundamental interactive skill. All of us have been guided by someone who exhibited empathy and listened nonjudgementally. The power of dreams and vision is present in our lives, from our childhood heroes to the people in our adult lives who draw us toward them with their personal magnetism.

However, each of the energy modes has the potential to be used negatively to weaken others, or positively to empower and enable others. Clear intention, situational appropriateness and skill at application are the keys to using personal power positively. And productive climax requires a highly flexible set of influence skills and a combination of the each modes.

#### D. GUIDELINES ON USING POWER

People whose power needs are satisfied are generally courteous.<sup>11</sup> They also derive greater enjoyment from their

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<sup>11</sup> Courtesy is saying or doing things that keep people from feeling uncomfortable.



interpersonal relationships by sharing their power with followers. They increase their personal power, instead of decreasing it, by giving followers more control and influence without relinquishing their authority. The followings are some of the author's insights on how to use power effectively in managerial processes.

The negative or personal face of power is characterized by the win-lose mode. In real life it leads to people being aggressive. It does not often lead to effective social leadership for the reason that such a person tends to treat other people as pawns. People who feel that they are pawns tend to be passive and useless to the leader who gets his satisfaction from dominating them. Consequently, the leader ignores them and uses his power coercively. Subordinates respond with various counter-coercive strategies. The result is a series of vicious circles which undermine the productive potential of power. Thus leaders need to have relevant skills to create win-win outcomes.

Any increase in power gives a leader greater potential for influencing subordinates, but a power differential also increases the propensity for resistance. The existence of a power differential is generally disturbing to the person who has lower power and status. Subordinates are aware that a powerful leader has the potential to cause them great harm or inconvenience. For this reason, even a benevolent leader's subordinates tend to be very sensitive to the leader's behavior, including subtle indications of approval or disapproval. Involuntary dependence on the whims of a powerful authority figure can cause resentment as well as anxiety, particularly for subordinates with strong needs for esteem and independence. A leader who treats subordinates as somehow inferior--who acts arrogant, bossy, and manipulative--will quickly elicit resistance to requests and commands [Ref. 36].

There appears to be a direct relationship between the level of maturity<sup>1 2</sup> of individuals or groups and the kind of power base that would have a high probability of gaining their compliance. For example, coercive and reward power are rather effective for people who are unable and unwilling to take responsibility. Expert and information power are effective for high maturity people who have both ability and motivation.

The maturity of the follower not only dictates which type of power will have the highest probability of success, but it also determines the power base that the leader should use to induce compliance or influence behavior. If the leadership does not reflect the appropriate power base, it may not maximize the probability of success. Thus the manager's power base should vary according to the maturity of the follower, which in turn means that effective leaders need to accurately assess the maturity level of the follower and to use that power base appropriately. Regardless of the level of maturity, change may occur. Whenever followers' performance, motivation, or ability decreases or increases, the leader should reassess their maturity level and adjust his behavior--leadership style.

Leadership style alone does not determine maximum effectiveness. It is the follower's perception of a manager's power that induces compliance or influences behavior. To increase the probability of influencing an other, an effective leader needs information about the sources of power others perceive in him. He needs to communicate to others the power he possesses and actually exercises, because truth and reality do not necessarily evoke behavior; perception and interpretation of reality produce behavior. For example,

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<sup>1 2</sup>One view of maturity considers the ability and willingness of individuals or groups to take responsibility for directing their own behavior in a particular area. [Ref. 18]

one may be an expert in a certain area, but that expert power is not effective unless others trust it. Also important is whether the available power bases are consistent with the maturity level of the followers.

One must understand power in the context of the motivation of the power recipients. People who accept their powerlessness usually have little trust in their own judgment. The greater the power gap between leader and follower, the more powerless the subordinate feels and the more strongly driven he is to fall into a childlike state of dependence. That dependence is a yearning for a powerful ally to whom he can hand over all his responsibilities as a slave does. Slaving is a highly inefficient form of labor, and so it follows that if a leader wants to have far-reaching influence, he needs to make his followers feel powerful and able to accomplish things on their own.

All leaders are actual or potential power holders, but not all power holders are leaders. The leader who is successful in using power needs some leadership qualities. He has to be able to lead people to do or not do whatever he wants done or left undone. People call this manipulation if they dislike it, leadership if they like it. Manipulation is nothing more or less than leadership. It is getting people to follow--leading and influencing people in the direction the leader wants them to go. The difference between manipulation and leadership is purely semantic. In fact, power is most effectively used as unobtrusively as possible which is the connotation of manipulation.

Power runs organizations. And everyone has it: the trick lies in recognizing it and putting it under one's control.

## V. CONCLUSION

This study was undertaken to achieve two goals. The first was to provide an integration of the literature on power. The second was to provide information on the applicability of theoretical strategies regarding the acquisition of power. The following is a restatement of the questions investigated regarding the issues:

1. Why do the dynamics of power tend to emerge systematically in managerial processes?
2. How do effective managers acquire power?
3. How and for what purposes do effective managers use power?

As a person gains more formal authority in an organization, the areas of vulnerability increase and become more complex. In fact, many people now recognize that authority of an office is not sufficient to get things done in organizations. Trying to control others solely by directing them and on the basis of the power associated with one's position simply will not work--first, because leaders are always dependent on some people over whom they have no formal authority, and second, because no one in modern organizations will passively accept and completely obey orders from someone just just because he is the "boss."

Literally, power means "to be able," and making something happen arises from personal competencies as well as from positional resources. But a growing distrust of institutions and their leaders requires the use of personal rather than positional power.

Leaders who are successful at acquiring considerable personal power and using it to manage their dependence on others tend to share a number of common characteristics:

They have good intuitive understanding of the various types of power and methods of influence. They are sensitive to what types of power are easiest to develop with different types of people and situations. They recognize, for example, that professionals tend to be more influenced by perceived expertise than by other forms of power.

They also have a grasp of all the various methods of influence and what each can accomplish, and with what risks. They are able to recognize the specific conditions in any situation, and then select an influence method that is compatible with those conditions.

Effective leaders engage in power-oriented behavior in ways that are tempered by maturity and self-control. They seldom develop and use power in impulsive ways or for their own aggrandizement. They use their own power in such a way as to make members of their organizations feel stronger. They encourage or enable members to be origins rather than pawns.

Future research on issues related to power building can add to the findings of this study. One of the shortcomings of the research to date is the lack of understanding of relationships under informal systems. Formal power flows only in one direction. It does not move up the ladder. Therein lies the weakness that then creates and sustains the informal system. The informal system is stronger and more inclusive than the formal system. Under the informal system, things get done across organizational lines rather than within them. More research is needed to help leaders learn how to use the informal system so as to find, acquire and hold on to power.

Leaders are always going to be at risk. If leaders are powerless, they may fail to meet organizational goals. And so they must always be thinking of how to become more powerful, especially how to build personal power so as to



mold their units into a cohesive whole for the good of the organization.

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